NOVEMBER 15
1941

CONSUMERS' GUIDE

IME TO GROW

How long does it take to grow?

Time as well as sun and earth and water is an essential in stepping up supplies of food. Here is an inventory of the time it takes to produce strategic foods

"THE FUTURE of the entire civilized world is bound up in the success of our effort to produce more of the vital foods. . . ."

So speaks the Secretary of Agriculture, invoking the men and women on the Nation's 6 million farms to harness the sunlight, to spur the earth, to set in motion the lifegiving processes that combine earth and air and light and water into growth—and food.

The weight of the people and the land, their facilities and their stock are thrown forward. The natural cycles and rotations turn with a constantly accelerated momentum.

More milk, more meat, more eggs, more fruits, more vegetables. The tempo of breeding and feeding, of seeding and harvesting quickens.

More milk—the white foam splashes into the pails on 4 million farms.

More fruits—the branches droop with sun-colored ovals and spheres.

More vegetables—the fields green and yellow with plants, the earth rich and radiant with potatoes and beets and carrots and radishes.

The Secretary might well have said, "Nature is your ally. You need only cooperate to enable the natural rhythms to produce life and food in abundance."

FULLNESS AND ABUNDANCE CAN BE achieved by many ways, but to increase animal numbers and plant acreage takes time.

Increases in food supplies do not necessarily mean increases in animal numbers or acres planted. By feeding cows scientifically and more intensively you can increase the milk supply substantially; chickens by proper feeding can be made to lay more eggs; hogs can be fed to heavier weights; and in the vegetable kingdom, increases are possible by improved cultivation practices. Today, when time is so short, indeed, a greater part of increased food supplies will come by the intensive exploitation of the food production factories, animal and vegetable, that are already in operation.

But there is a limit even to this. Numbers must be increased. In cities, the pulling of a switch at a power house, an instruction to the personnel office, doubling up on assembly lines, may result in an immediate increase of automobiles, or radios, or refrigerators.

To multiply the number of cows giving milk, however, it takes more land, more feed, more labor, and more time. Most importantly more time. Time enough for biological currents to work with light and air and earth and water in organic tissue. Increased supplies can be obtained by breeding superior animals, by more scientific feeding, a more generous use of fertilzer. But for the moment examine the time element.

Take a cow producing morning and night her pail of milk. To have another cow, producing milk, in time alone you normally need 283 days plus 2 to 2½ years, something over 3 years in all.

First the cow must be bred and then 283 days must elapse, the period of gestation for a cow. For example, a farmer who breeds his cow in July will have a calf born in the spring when the fields begin to green, although commercial dairymen breed their cows every month of the year to obtain a more nearly uniform flow of milk the year round.

CALVES DO NOT PRODUCE MILK, FOR MILK is an incident of motherhood among cows. Before a female calf can become a milk-producing cow, it must mature, that is, it must grow up to be about 2 years old. A calf born in April will normally be bred about July 2 years later, and when her calf is born 283 days later she begins to produce milk on her own.

1942 production goals.

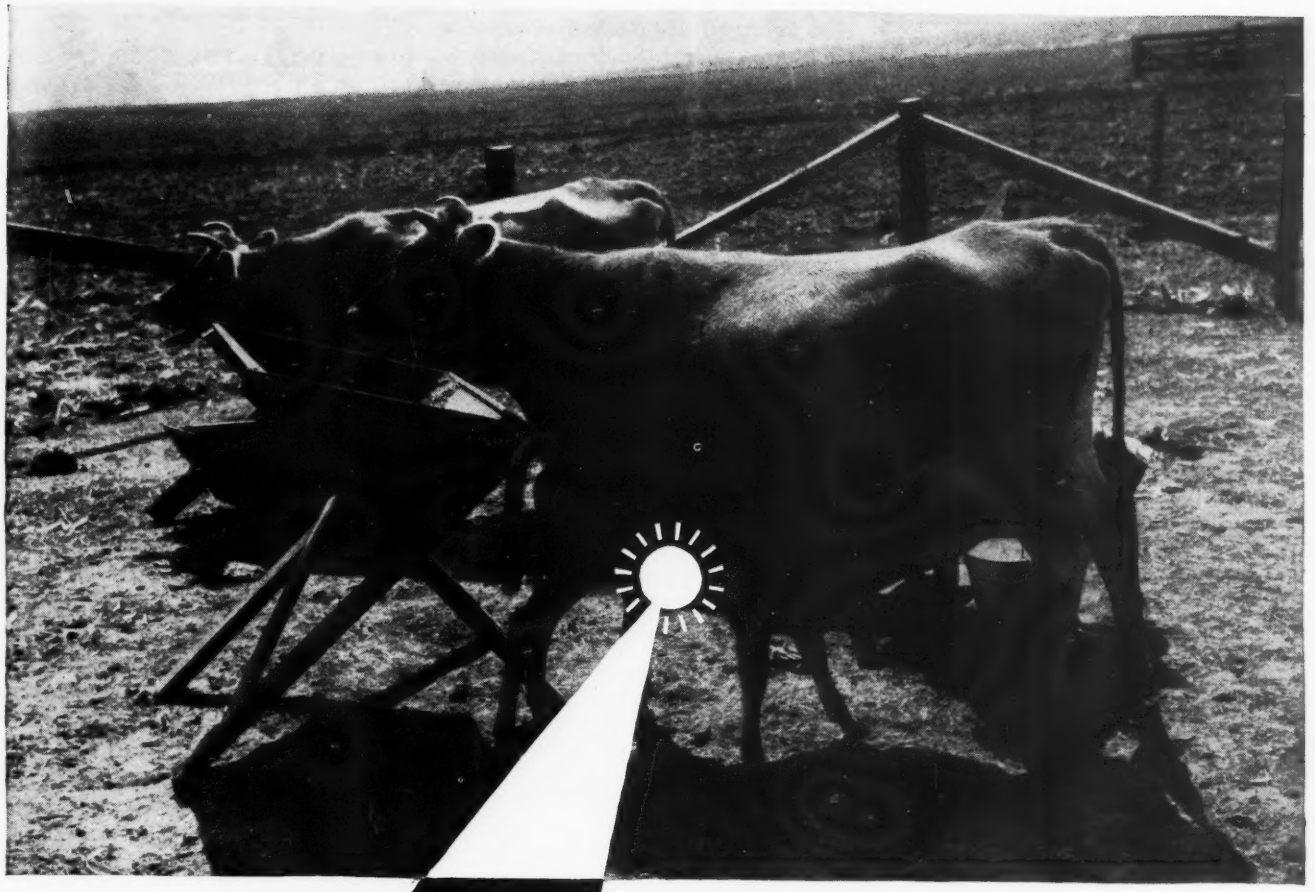
The Food for Freedom campaign announced by the Secretary of Agriculture sets specific food production goals as objectives for the year 1942. On this and succeeding pages the production goals and their anticipated effects on supplies for consumption are given for selected groups of foods.

THE GOAL—FOR MEAT.

The 1942 goal aims at the production of 24.2 billions of pounds of beef, pork, veal, lamb, mutton, and chicken, or about 10.5 percent more than this year.

After making the necessary allowances for export, the 1942 production of meat, if it is achieved and shared equally among all the men, women, and children of the country, would be enough to provide each person with 169 pounds of meat at the butcher's block. Actually, the total meat supply is not going to be shared equally, but statistics are given that way for the purpose of making comparisons with earlier years. An equal sharing of the total available meat supply in 1941 would give everyone 162 pounds of meat.

This increase of available meat in 1942 would put meat eating, quantitatively, on a higher level than it has been for 30 years. The large beef consumption anticipated as a part of the total meat goal depends on whether cattlemen market more animals in 1942 or continue to increase their herds for greater marketings in later years.



TIME is a critical factor when you plan to increase production of anything and most critical when you plan to increase the production of foodstuffs. You can speed up the production of automobiles without reference to the movement of the seasons or to fixed biological cycles but you can't get around the fact that it takes 283 days for a cow to bear a calf, or 114 days for a sow to have a litter of pigs, or 21 days for an egg to hatch.

THE GOAL—FOR MILK.

The production of milk in 1942 is intended to reach 125 billion pounds, 7 percent more than the 117 billion pounds that will be produced this year.

As in other years about 55 percent of the 1942 production may be manufactured into dairy products of one kind or another. Substantial quantities of these dairy products are expected to be shipped abroad or stored in warehouses as strategic stockpiles for future use. After making allowance for these uses, there would remain for American consumption some 872 pounds of milk equivalent per person if the goal is reached. This amount of milk is 17 pounds per person above the average consumption for this year, and is the largest amount of milk available per person in any year as far back as the records go.

From cow to extra cow, then, approximately 3 to 4 years must elapse.

Normally the beef cow is bred in July on the western ranges and the calf is born in March or April. Most veal is a by-product of the dairy industry. The male calves, most of them, and a number of the female calves go to the block any time from their first to their 10th month. From such young animals comes veal. Last year, in 1940, some 961 million pounds of veal were consumed, as compared with 7,299 million pounds of beef.

Calves raised for beef run all summer with their mothers, and then in the fall many of them are shipped to farms that specialize in fattening cattle. Here the animal is fattened for 5 or 6 months until it weighs 700 to 1,000 pounds, when it is marketed, something less than 2 years from the time it was decided to have an extra beef animal. The breeding cycle, however, for beef and dairy animals is the same.

SOWS MAY BE BRED TO HAVE 2 CROPS OF pigs a year, the spring crop, the most important harvest, and the fall crop. Sows kept for spring pig production are bred usually in November and December; the pigs are farrowed (in average litters of 5 and 6) 114 days later in March and April. After suckling their mothers for 8 to 10 weeks, they are weaned and fed on grain and forage crops until fall, when they should weigh about 225 pounds. From then on they are marketed depending on how fast they fatten. Most fall pigs are farrowed in September or October and marketed from April until August.

Pigs are bred to farrow in the spring and fall because survival conditions for young pigs are not so good in the summer heat or the winter cold. The spring crop of pigs is the more important because feeding conditions are better in the spring and summer. Then pigs can be turned out in pasture whereas in the winter pigs must be housed and fed mainly on harvested feed.

To increase the hog supply, then, you need breeding stock, a farm with an ample feed supply, time, anywhere from 11 to 15 months of time, and a knowledge of what to do and when to do it.

MOST LAMBS ARE BORN IN THE SPRING from March to May. Spring lambs, however, arrive at the market earlier in the year. They go to butcher shops from their mothers' sides when they are about 4 months old. Most spring lambs are produced in California, Arizona, and Texas, and to a lesser degree in Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia. Lambs from the range country, and they are the lambs most people eat when they have lamb, get to market later. Depending on how fat they are, they go straight to the butcher or are shipped from the range country to the feed lots in the Corn Belt. There they are fattened from an average weight of about 50 pounds up to 80 pounds or more. From December until May they go to the abattoirs where they follow a Judas goat through the chutes to the slaughter. Altogether from the time you decide to market an extra lamb until the time it is marketed, between 12 and 16 months must elapse, 150 days for gestation, and then 7 to 11 months to give the lambs time to grow up and be fattened.

CHICKEN EGGS MUST BE INCUBATED 21 DAYS before the chick breaks out of the shell. Many chicks are hatched in commercial hatcheries from January to July. The next man in the production cycle is the poultry farmer. Twelve weeks after he gets the chicks, they are big enough to go to town as broilers. The huskier males in the brood are more frequently kept 4 to 5 months longer for marketing as roasters. Pullets are sometimes marketed for meat with their brothers, the cockerels, but more often they are held back to produce eggs.

Pullets begin to lay eggs in their 5th or 6th month, so from egg to egg, something like 6 or 7 months pass. Pullets that start laying eggs in the fall keep at the job of turning eggs out until late summer or early fall of the following year.

THE GOAL—FOR EGGS.

The 1942 goal for egg production is 4 billion dozen eggs, about 10 percent more eggs than will be produced this year. After the necessary number of eggs have been exported, there may be approximately 306 eggs per person for use in this country, if the goal is attained. Some of these eggs may go into a national stockpile to take care of future contingencies. This would leave slightly fewer eggs to be eaten next year than were available during 1941. The 1942 average consumption, therefore, may be lower than for any year since 1918 except for the 4 years from 1933 to 1937.

The cycle from January chicks to December roasters is the usual one for most chickens, and is based upon the desirabililty of having chickens well started by spring so they are strong enough to resist the weather changes, and the pests, insect and animal, that prey on them. More and more, however, chickens are being brought up in heated brooders where weather is controlled by switching power on and off. Artificial weather thus is slowly reducing seasonal swings in production and is sending chickens of all stages of development to market at all times of the year. It can't do anything about the time factor, though—21 days to hatch an egg, 5 to 6 months to raise a pullet until she starts to lay eggs on her own account, 10 to 12 months to produce a roaster.

Turkeys, ducks, geese breed and multiply in a one-year cycle. The average turkey, or duck, or goose lays its eggs in the spring, the exact month depending on how far north or how far south the fowls are being raised. Then 28 days must elapse for hatching. Eggs hatched in one spring are fowls laying eggs the next spring. Ducks and geese are marketed when they are upwards of 10 weeks old, which brings them to town sometimes squawking, sometimes not, from July through December. Turkeys are marketed when they are from 20 to 30 weeks old. That means they spread their feathers toward town from the end of September through February.

THE PRODUCTION CYCLE OF FRUITS AND vegetables is not entirely contained within the seasons of a single year.

It takes foresight leaping across a span of years to anticipate a harvest of apples from the planting of a seed.

Fruit usually is grown by grafting what is known as a scion, a piece of budwood or a bud, on a rootstock. The rootstock is grown in a nursery, the grafting is made there, and the tree itself is not ready to be set out in an orchard until it is 2 to 3 years old.

Citrus trees don't bear much fruit for 4 to 6 years. Six to 8 years must pass before many apples ripen on apple trees. Plum trees must develop for 4 to 6 years before there is fruit. Apricots, peaches, pears, and cherries appear scantily on trees after 4 years of growth, while full production is not attained for 6 to 8 years.

Berries, strawberries, raspberries, blackberries, currants, and dewberries have a production cycle that is briefer than the large fruits.

Strawberry plants start life as runners from an older plant. That is, the branch touches the ground and begins to root. Strawberry growers in most areas then take up the new growth, cut it from the old plant, and set it out in the spring. By the following spring, the new plant is fruiting. Currants, gooseberries, dewberries, loganberries, and black and purple raspberries, similarly produce some fruit in the second year after the plants are set out, but 3 to 4 years must pass for full production.

Farm crops that aren't animal products or fruits are generally divided into 2 broad classes: field crops and truck crops. The field crops, a description that includes wheat, corn, rice, hay, oats, barley, soybeans, and peanuts, include the products that are grown extensively, over large areas. Truck crops by general use apply to the vegetables you load into your basket when you go shopping. The term came originally from an old usage of the word truck meaning to barter. Truck crops were the kind that were handy for taking to town to barter or truck for cloth or tobacco or whatever else oldtime farmers needed and didn't raise on the farm.

THE TIME IT TAKES TO HAVE A FIELD OR truck crop from "on order" to "on hand" varies with the crop, soil, the weather, and the methods of cultivation. It is possible, however, to make approximations which give you an idea of the time element involved.

Take the field crops first. Winter wheat, the more important wheat crop, is sown from September through November and is harvested from May through July of the following year. Roughly that means winter wheat has a growing period of 9 to 10 months. Spring wheat is sown in March and April and is harvested in July and August, requiring something around 4 to 5 months of growing time.

Corn which is almost exclusively an animal feed, is planted in the important corn States in May and June and harvested in October and November after 6 to 7 months have elapsed.

Winter oats are sown in September and October and harvested in May and June of the next year after 9 to 10 months of growth. Spring oats, source of most oats, are sown in March and April, depending upon the latitude, and are harvested in July and August, after approximately 6 months of growing time.

Soybeans, when grown for the beans rather than for hay, are planted in June and harvested in late September and October, some 5 months down the calendar.

Seeds for peanuts go into the ground in April and May and come out of the earth in September and October after growing there for some 5 months.

Most of the rye crop is sown and harvested about the same time as winter wheat, that is, it is planted in September and October of one year and harvested in July and August of the next year, after the sun and earth have worked on the seed for approximately 10 months.

How much time is there in a market basket full of food? It takes 2 years from the time you decide to have another beef animal until the day comes when you actually are ready to ship it to market. That includes the time necessary for gestation plus the time necessary for the animal to mature. The average leg of lamb takes a year to 16 months to come to market, though it may be only a half year old when you buy it. Vegetables take time, too, but on the whole less time than other food products. Most of them may be planted in the spring and harvested for market by summer or fall.

Speaking precisely of time and truck crops is also something that can't be done. One variety of peas matures faster than another. The same variety will mature more rapidly at a time when the weather is warm than it will when the weather is cool. Performances, however, are consistent enough to permit approximations. Production cycles of most vegetables, incidentally, are different from their life cycles because some of them produce edible roots, or bulbs, or leaves, before they mature and produce seeds.

TO BEGIN WITH THE A'S, ASPARAGUS IS A perennial, which means that once it is planted it stays planted and need not be planted again, at least not for 8 to 15 years, the usual productive life of an asparagus plant. The asparagus you get first in the year, in March and April, is set out in the fields in regions of mild winters the latter part of December up through March. Then 2 years later, from February through April, the stalks are cut for marketing. Most late asparagus (from more northerly regions), the kind that comes to market through May and June, is set out in March and April and first cut for marketing 2 years later.

Lima beans have approximately a 3-month growing period, though these 3 months may occur almost anywhere on the calendar. Florida beans are planted from September to the end of February and marketed from January to June. Georgia lima beans are planted in March, and harvested in June.

As you go north the planting season gets later, and the harvesting season advances down through the summer to late in October. Incidentally, 2 crops of lima beans per year can be grown in the warmer parts of the country—an early crop planted in April and marketed in June, and a late harvest that is planted in July and marketed in September and October.

SNAP BEANS, WITH A 6-WEEK GROWING SEAson, are another farm product that is capable of going the rounds from planting to harvest more than once a year. In Florida the fall crop is planted from September to the first of November and sent to market from November through the middle of December. A second crop is planted from November to February and shipped north from January through March. Then a third crop is planted in February and March and hastened along to consumers during April. A middle region like eastern Virginia gets in 3 crops, one that is marketed during June and early July, another that hits consumers late in July and in August, while a third comes to town from September through October. Farther north in New York, Pennsylvania, and Michigan, snap beans are planted from May through July and sent to town continuously from July to September.

Beets take about 10 weeks on the average to develop well-grown roots from the time the seeds are planted. From seed to harvest, however, is only half the beet story. For while it is only 10 weeks to a beet harvest, 2 years must pass to complete the beet's life cycle, for the best is a biennial. The 2-year period is important, however, only in the production of beet seeds, not in the production of beets. The earliest beets to arrive at the market place come from Texas in December, but then they keep coming right up until May. Beet plantings begin out in the fields in September and continue down through January.

PLANTING TIME MOVES UP IN THE YEAR AS the sun moves north. By the time spring reaches Pennsylvania, beets are being put in the ground continuously from April through July and are being pulled out regularly from

THE GOAL—FOR VEGETABLES.

The goal established for vegetables in 1942 calls for production from commercial truck farms in the important producing areas large enough to afford 109 pounds of vegetables (farm weight) for each person from this source, an amount that is a little higher than has been available in most recent years. In 1941, the comparable average consumption is expected to be 107 pounds.

No change is asked for in production from the truck gardens in the vicinity of most large cities. In 1941, average consumption from this source was about 60 pounds (farm weight) per person.

The goal for farm gardens, mostly for consumption on farms, calls for an increase under the vegetable program from an average of 81 pounds per person in 1941 to 105 pounds per person in 1942. This supply, if achieved, may increase somewhat the vegetables available for consumption by the urban population as well.

The potato-production goal, including sweets, is not set for an increase in 1942. The goal provides average consumption of 165 pounds per person, something less than the average consumption figure for past years.

In summary, the goal for all fresh vegetables, except potatoes, calls for the maintenance of a level of consumption in 1942 much higher than in earlier years and at or a little above the level of recent years.

In canned vegetables, the goal calls for an output about the same as this year's record production. This goal would provide an average of about 31 pounds of canned vegetables for each person in the country in 1942. This average is 1 pound per person higher than for 1941, and higher than for any other earlier year.

THE GOAL—FOR FRUITS.

The production of fruits for distribution in fresh, dried, or canned form is expected to increase 1.4 percent from 14.8 million tons this year to 15 million tons in 1942.

Larger requirements for dried and canned fruit will reduce slightly the quantities of 12 major fruits available for consumption in fresh form in 1942. It is expected that the consumption of the 12 major fresh fruits may amount to 135 pounds per person in 1942, compared with 136.5 pounds per person in 1941. At this level average consumption of fresh fruits in 1942 would still be greater than it has been for all except 3 recent years.

If the goal is attained, canned fruit consumption, excluding pineapples, will average out to 11 pounds per person in 1942, a half pound less than in 1941, but more than the average consumption in any year except 1940 and 1941.

Dried fruit consumption is expected to increase slightly in 1942 to an average of about 6 pounds per person.

the middle of June down through the middle of November.

Cabbage is a crop that can be harvested some place every day in the year. Florida, California, Arizona, and Texas farmers crowd its 3-month growing period for market into the year 3 times. In some States, such as New York, 2 crops a year are harvested regularly. The cabbage, it should be noted, is harvested early in life. The cabbage head is actually a bud and is harvested while the plant is still young. Permitted to live out its life the cabbage survives for 2 years, producing a bud the first year, and a flower and seed the second year.

Carrots take 2 years to go from seed through flower and fruit to seed, but they only take 2 to 6 months to develop their edible roots. They are planted around the country so that no matter what the weather may be in any particular place they are being harvested and shipped to the market from somewhere. Carrots, like potatoes, are easily stored, so carrots harvested at the height of the season in the late summer and the early fall, go into warehouses to come out when they are needed. In the middle and northern States, carrots are pulled out of the fields almost continuously from June down through November as the result of plantings from April through July.

Sweet corn is abundant during a rather definitely limited season. It is planted from April through the early part of June. It takes slightly less than 3 months in the growing, and it appears on the markets or goes into cans from July down to the first days of October. Then it is gone for another year.

Kale, which belongs to the cabbage family, usually is planted from seed in August, and then after 10 weeks or so it produces a harvest of foliage that is gathered for marketing regularly from November through the winter and into the spring up until the end of April.

LETTUCE, AN ANNUAL PLANT, TAKES ANYwhere from 2 to 5 months to grow up from a seed to salad. It is planted in States like Colorado and New York from late in March until late in July and is harvested from mid-June into October. Fall and winter plantings in California, Arizona, and Florida take care of consumer needs during the winter and spring months.

In Texas, the source of most early onions, the seeds are put in the ground from the first of October down to the end of the year, and then after about 5 months of growing the edible bulbs start to market in March and keep coming until the end of May.

New York, which produces more onions than any other State in the Union, sets out onion plants (called sets) at the beginning of a 4-month growing season in March and April and harvests them in the last July days, in August, and in September. Onions, which are biennial plants that take 2 years to develop from seed to seed, are grown chiefly from seeds and not from plants.

Green peas from California open and close the green pea year. The first green peas come to market at the end of January, after growing 2½ to 3 months. Then the late California crop closes the season at the end of December. In between peas are put out as early as January in Louisiana and Mississippi and as late as the end of May in New York. Most garden peas come to market from May down to the middle of August.

Potato crop reports cut the potato season up into 7 seasons, fall and winter, early (1), early (2), second early, intermediate (1), intermediate (2), and late. Late potatoes include the bulk of all the potatoes eaten. They go into the ground as sections of seed

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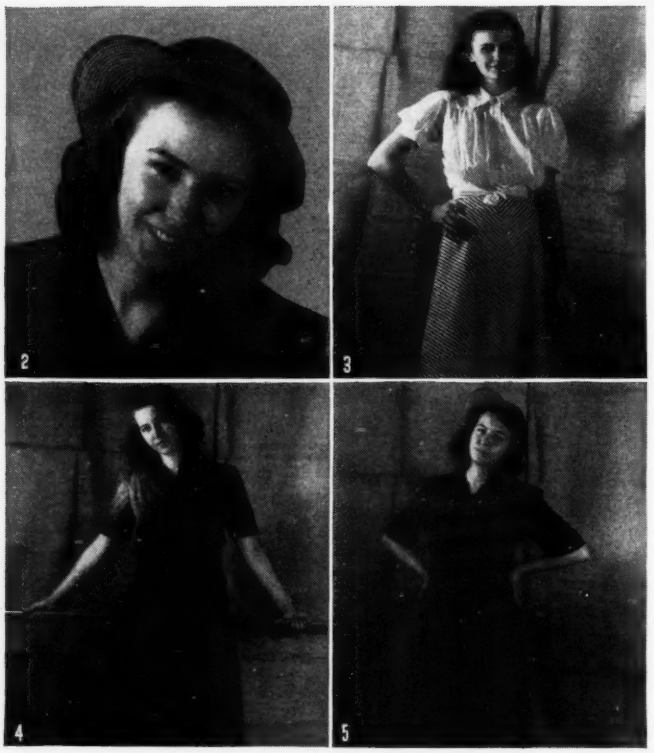
Food for Freedom is the name of the campaign now being sponsored by the Department of Agriculture in an effort to increase the production of strategic foods. Part of the increase is to be gained by planting more seeds, and breeding more animals. Equally important, will be the use of better plants and animals, the use of fertilizer and better feeding methods, and the application on the farm of more scientific farm techniques. Where one method won't do, another will. Increased supplies of fruits, for example, cannot come immediately from planting more fruit trees; most fruit trees take at least 6 years to mature.



When the school bus pulls up to a stop at the crossroad where the children from Farm Security Administration tenant families wait this winter, the high school girl in the family is going to be stylishly attired in a $7.50 outfit. The pinafore (1) was made of 4 yards of osnaburg for 57 cents. The cute skimmer (2) was made of scrap materials left over after the 62-cent blue covert dress (4) was draped together. The fetching cotton blouse (3), made with fancy striped lawn, cost 20 cents, while the jacket in the ensemble (5) was made from potato and jute meal sacks for a total cost of 32 cents.

$7.50 worth of morale

Clothing a high school girl for $7.50 a year is a problem some farm families must solve. Here is how they do it

HUNGRY children don't win honors at school.

Children who don't have clothes won't even go to school, more especially if they are girls of high school age.

In the Southern regions where the Farm Security Administration is working on a program of human conservation, finding ways to clothe the children of tenant families ranks next in importance to finding ways to get good diets for the families.

Anyone who has ever had a sister knows that the best barometer of clothing needs is the adolescent girl in the family. You can look for squalls and tempests if sister can't be turned out properly.

Turning out sister presentably in communities where the most popular brand of flour is the one that comes in the most attractively printed flour sack isn't a job that's solved by leafing through a fashion magazine.

ASSUME THAT SISTER IS 15 YEARS OLD AND that she is a member of a white tenant family in Mississippi or Alabama or Georgia that has an annual income (including income in kind) of something less than $500 a year. In that event there is $10.41 to spend on sister's clothes for the year, less $2.97 for shoes (based on the Consumer Purchases Study made by the Bureau of Home Economics and the WPA in the year 1935–36).

Or assume that sister starts out to school in the morning from the home of a Negro tenant family that has an income of less than $500 a year. Then her clothing budget for the year is $7.82 less $2.56 for shoes.

The Farm Security Administration with sister in mind made a survey and found that if she is to be clothed properly for school, it has to be done on $7.50 a year or less.

There you have a project, to clothe sister presentably enough so she won't be reluctant, when the time comes, to go to school, and to clothe her within an annual budget of $7.50.

When projects like this come up, some people have one mind on them, some have another mind. The people of the first mind harrumph and declare that finding ways to clothe a girl for $7.50 a year isn't any help; what you've got to do is get her family an income large enough to clothe her properly without any tricks.

PEOPLE OF THE SECOND MIND REPLY TO this that you have the families with incomes of less than $500 a year *now;* there are children who don't go to school *now* because they don't have clothes; the problem is to get them clothes to go to school *now.*

Farm Security Administration home economists, without letting up on the work with families that leads to higher incomes, are of the second mind. They decided to take the budget and girl and see what they could do.

The results they have achieved will be of little interest to families that have money to spend on clothes. For girls who must dress within the $7.50 budget the results are more important than a half hundred bales of fashion plates.

Beginning with $7.50 and a girl, the FSA home economists decided first that $7.50 would not cover the girl if the clothes were purchased ready-made. They had to be made at home. Making clothes at home was feasible for a survey showed that most tenant families either had a sewing machine or access to one. As for making the clothes, the survey disclosed that practically every family also had someone who could sew reasonably well.

NEXT THE FSA HOME MANAGEMENT WORKers, with the cooperation of home economists at the University of Alabama, worked out what ought to go into the $7.50 wardrobe. The survey showed that high school girls in tenant families had about $22 worth of clothes hung up at home and that about a third of the wardrobe was replaced each year.

Working out a 3-year plan for a closet full of clothes for a high school girl in a tenant family, the home economists hit upon this inventory.

In the first year of the plan the girl would need: a suit, 2 dresses, 3 blouses, 2 slips, 2 pairs of pants, 2 pairs of shoes, 3 pairs of cotton stockings, 1 pair of slacks, and 1 basic pattern to use in making clothes.

The cost of the first year's outfit came to $7.40.

In the second year, the plan called for 1 reversible coat, 2 dresses, 1 wool sweater, 1 slip, 1 pair of pants, 1 night gown, 1 pair of shoes, 1 pair of shoes repaired, 3 pairs of cotton socks, and 1 pair of woolen gloves.

The second year of clothes totals up to $8.24.

In the third year the plan contemplates $6.70 worth of clothes: 1 jacket, 1 dress, 1 wool flannel skirt, 1 blouse, 1 slip, 1 pair of pants, 2 pairs of shoes, 1 pair of stockings, and 2 pairs of cotton socks.

Further inquiries ended in the development of some basic principles.

For low cost clothing all cotton fabrics were better, in general, than mixtures of cotton and rayon, or cotton and wool.

Pattern costs could be cut by establishing pattern libraries, either in the home of a community leader, or at the church, or school. Used patterns could be deposited in the pattern library, and referred to when they were needed.

IN PREPARING THE WARDROBE, CLOTHES fatigue, that is the chance of having a girl tire of her clothes, could be avoided best by making all the clothes in a related color scheme, a scheme, of course, that best suits the girl.

Bright colors should be avoided in fabrics because they become tiresome after a while. The required color lift should be achieved instead by using bright colored fittings, on the buttons, or fastenings, or on the accessories.

The clothes made should be interchangeable, that is the dresses should be convertible into suits, or the blouses and jackets should transform into a costume, or should combine readily with other articles of clothing into a costume change.

Finally, the materials should be durable that is, tested for colorfastness, shrinkage, and breaking strength.

The last principle led the home economists in and out of general stores, mail order catalogs, and department store basements. When they finally emerged they had bought all the cloth they needed for prices ranging from 10 to 25 cents a yard.

EVEN THE MOST CAREFUL SHOPPING, HOWever, wouldn't have brought the researchers inside the budget if they hadn't effected other economies—home dyeing, the use of homemade fasteners, such as old ties, overall buckles, old buttons, nuts, and spools. Headwear and purses had to be made from scraps left from the dress and suit material.

Finally, the preliminary work was done, the materials were sewed up into clothes, and the $7.50 wardrobe was completed and ready to wear.

Garment by garment here are the costs for the articles made at home:

1. Mattress ticking dress
   - Pattern
   - 4 yards of mattress ticking, 32 inches wide, 15 cents per yard ..... .60
   - 1 spool No. 70 thread..... .05
   - Wool yarn..... .03
   - Snaps and hooks..... .02
   - Total ..... .70
2. Osnaburg pinafore
   - Pattern
   - 4 yards 27 inch osnaburg, 12.5 cents a yard..... .50
   - 1 spool thread..... .05
   - Snaps and hooks..... .02
   - Total ..... .57
3. Cotton blouse, dyed red
   - Pattern
   - 1¼ yards fancy stripe lawn, 38 inches wide, 5.5 cents a yard..... .07
   - Dye, half package..... .05
   - 1 spool thread..... .05
   - Snaps ..... .03
   - Total ..... .20
4. Reversible coat
   - Pattern
   - 5 yards blue denim, 30 inches wide, 17 cents a yard..... .85
   - 4 yards spot-proof blue corduroy, 36 inches wide, 57 cents a yard..... 2.18
   - 3 spools mercerized thread... .15
   - Total 3.18
5. Blue covert dress
   - Pattern
   - 4 yards covert which had to be preshrunk, 13 cents a yard. .52
   - 2 spools mercerized thread... .10
   - Buckles from old overalls....
   - Total ..... .62
6. Slips
   - 2⅛ yards unfinished lawn, 44 inches wide, 7.5 cents a yard ..... .16
   - Thread ..... .02
   - Snaps ..... .02
   - Total ..... .20

HOW LONG DOES IT TAKE TO GROW?

Continued from page 7

potatoes in April, May, and June and come out of the ground 3 to 5 months later as late potatoes in September, October, and November. Then most of them go into storage to come out as needed.

Georgia raises more sweetpotatoes (which belong to the morning glory family) than any other State, but Georgia farmers eat a substantial part of the crop right on their farms so that Virginia is the first State in the production of sweetpotatoes for commercial purposes. Sweetpotato sprouts are planted in the fields in April, May, and June after they are grown from seed potatoes in 4 to 5 weeks. The roots develop underground for 4 months, and then they are dug from August until frost.

MUCH OF THE SPINACH CROP IS PLANTED when most other crops are being harvested. Farmers start to plant it in September in Virginia and then after 2 months of watching it, they begin to harvest it in November, and keep harvesting it through January. In Texas, which is the No. 1 spinach State, they begin to plant spinach in September and continue to do so until the middle of January. Harvesting lasts from the middle of November to the end of April.

It is possible in many Eastern and Central States to get 2 crops of spinach, a spring crop and a fall crop.

Tomatoes, whose Vitamin-C content makes them a very critical Defense vegetable, take a matter of 8 to 10 weeks to develop from seed to tomato plants. The plants are then transplanted and about 3 months elapse before they are ready to harvest. From late August through March, tomato plants are set out in the field in California, Texas, and Florida to be harvested from late October down to the middle of June.

Tomato production, however, is not limited to the warm-weather States. Maryland, Indiana, New York, and Pennsylvania produce large quantities of tomatoes. In these States, tomato plants, previously grown from seed, are set out in the fields—beginning with the earliest State—from April through June to be harvested from June down to the middle of October.

THE SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE, IN ANnouncing the Agriculture Production Goals for 1942 said that food, huge quantities of the right foods, had to be produced for three purposes: To supply American needs, to supply the needs of people abroad, and to build up stockpiles of good food to insure ample supplies of food for America and the starved people of Europe after the war.

To accomplish these ends, it will take determination and hard work and intelligence and time.

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7. Shorts
   - Pattern
   - 1 yard underwear check, 11 cents a yard..... .11
   - Thread ..... .02
   - Snaps ..... .02
   - Total ..... .15
8. Blue dress from sacks
   - Pattern
   - Sugar sacks..... .15
   - Dye ..... .10
   - Thread ..... .03
   - Snaps ..... .02
   - Total ..... .30
9. Jacket
   - Pattern
   - Jute meal sacks..... .10
   - Potato sacks..... .05
   - Dye ..... .15
   - Thread ..... .02
   - Total ..... .32
10. Bolero made from osnaburg potato sack.

For the home economists working on this project, making up the $7.50 wardrobe was only one phase of their work. Next they had to find ways of telling the girls concerned, the girls in the tenant families, how to make their own $7.50 wardrobes.

A cotton trade association was persuaded to dig up enough material to supply kits of the wardrobe makings to each Farm Security office in each county of the southern region where this work was going on. FSA workers, girls on NYA projects, and home economics students in colleges then took the makings and made them up into clothes.

With these clothes, style shows were held and the details of the wardrobe explained to critical mothers and daughters. Farm Security home economists, themselves, took to wearing the clothes out of the $7.50 wardrobe to show them off.

NO ONE CLAIMS THAT MISS SHARECROPPER of 1941 is as well turned out as Miss Fifth Avenue, but the $7.50 wardrobe is neat and pleasant as well as chic by the fashion magazine standards. And wearing the $7.50 models, young girls go to schools down in the cotton counties a little less diffidently than ever before.

B_1, you're told, is the morale vitamin, but the $7.50 wardrobe has also got some morale in it; enough morale, in fact, to have been a tonic to a great many families greatly in need of tonic.

Televising consumer facts

Now you can learn by television what every wise consumer already knows about Government grades

FEDERAL GRADES and standards for food products aren't new but television broadcasts are. They're so modern that most people have never witnessed a television program. But television's the newest way the Department of Agriculture is using to reach consumers with facts about its services and activities.

September 5 saw the presentation of the Department's first television program over Station WNBT, New York—a round table discussion of Federal grades and standards for fresh fruits and vegetables. First of a series designed to tell homemakers about the meaning and uses of Federal grades for food, the program served 5,000 television receiving sets in the New York area.

A panel made up of a Department expert on fruit and vegetable grades, 2 housewives, and a representative of the broadcasting company, talked about the uses and drawbacks of grades as an aid to potato buying. Succeeding programs in the new television series saw other departmental experts demonstrate the meaning of grades in canned vegetables and fruits, dairy and poultry products, and meats. Illustrating the differences between grades, all attempted to show their television audience the many occasions when a second or third grade selection, depending on the use the purchaser intended to make of it, would meet his needs just as well as a top quality buy and at the same time prove far easier on his pocketbook.

Canned cherries graded by experts of the Agricultural Marketing Service are now on sale in many food stores. Wise consumers know that Grade A or B or C on the label means that the canned fruit meets definite standards determined by Government experts.

GOVERNMENT STANDARDS AND GRADES FOR foods aren't as new as television but they're important to everybody who wants to make his dollar buy the maximum in food value. Started in 1902 for wheat, grades and standards were first designed as a service to commercial handlers, bankers, and farmers who wanted to know exactly what they were buying, selling, or lending money on.

Now the Agricultural Marketing Service of the Department of Agriculture grades fresh fruits and vegetables, canned and dried fruits and vegetables, meats, and dairy and poultry products. Because grading is voluntary, not all producers or processors pass the grades on to the consumer. If the housewife wants to know exactly what quality she's paying for, she must ask for Government graded foods at food stores and she must take the trouble to find out what the grades mean.

Government graded meat is on sale in many markets. U. S. Prime, Choice, Good, Commercial, or Utility, stamped on beef tells the buyer just what quality she's paying for. Practically none of the "U. S. Prime" beef reaches the retail market and only a small proportion of the "U. S. Choice." "U. S. Good," ordinarily the best grade you can buy, is good for steaks and roasts. "Commercial" or "Utility" make fine pot roasts or stews. Grades for lamb and veal run, U. S. Prime, Choice, Good, Medium, and Common.

You can buy graded turkeys too. Usually only U. S. Prime turkeys have individual tags on each bird showing their grade, but the boxes in which graded turkeys are packed are stamped with the grade even though each turkey is not. Individual full-drawn, ready-to-cook turkeys and other poultry are sometimes graded for quality, too; then the grade is printed on a cellophane wrapper for each bird.

U. S. GRADES FOR EGGS BASED ON QUALITY and size usually appear on seals closing the 1-dozen cartons in which they are sold. The top grade, U. S. Special or Retail Grade AA, is seldom available in retail stores. Best breakfast eggs are U. S. Extras or Retail Grade A. U. S. Standards or Retail Grade B are suitable for either eating or cooking. Storage eggs may be graded too, must be marked "storage" in the two top grades, though not in U. S. Standard. Storage eggs

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Clean to save

Cleaning means longer life for home furnishings and equipment as material shortages make replacements hard to get. Here are some hints on careful cleaning that thrifty housewives can put to work

Windows and Mirrors

FIRST thing to remember: never use soap. It makes windows streaked, cloudy and very hard to polish. Four tablespoons of dilute ammonia added to a gallon of clear warm water will remove oily film laid down by a smoke-laden atmosphere. Spraying the water with ammonia in it on the glass makes the job easier and quicker, too. Be careful not to spill the ammonia solution on any painted, varnished, or lacquered surface; if some does spill, wipe it up at once with clear water.

A chamois is better for drying and polishing the windows than a cloth which will leave lint on the pane. You can use the chamois for washing, too, if you wish, but it will have to be rinsed again before you use it to polish the glass if the windows are very dirty.

Windows that are merely dusty can be wiped with soft tissue or newspaper, just as you did the chimney of the old fashioned kerosene lamp.

Mirrors should be washed in clear warm water. Since they rarely get as dirty as windows, you can usually omit the ammonia from the water. But don't get any water on the back of the mirror, where it might damage the quicksilver.

Painted Walls and wood trim

A light suds of a mild neutral soap, such as you'd use for fine fabrics, is the best cleaner for painted surfaces. Wash paint no harder than necessary to get the dirt off; then rinse off every trace of soap with clear water and wipe the surface dry with a soft cloth. Use water as sparingly as though it were an expensive cleaning material and wash only a small area at a time so that the water won't stand on the surface any longer than necessary.

If the walls or wood trim are very dirty, you can add a little trisodium phosphate or other alkaline cleaner to the soapy water. Trisodium phosphate is a fairly strong alkaline salt and one of the best cleansers. But a little goes a long way; a half tablespoon to a gallon of water is plenty. A larger amount will injure the surface of your paint. In fact a strong solution is used as a paint remover. Also, don't ever use it on linoleum, or furniture, or aluminum. It will damage them.

The kind of paint makes a difference in how successfully you can wash it. Generally paints with an oil or varnish base withstand washing better than other types. The glossier the paint the better it will wash, too. Casein and glue bound paints are more easily affected by water; they can be gently washed but not scrubbed. Calcimine can't be washed, nor can whitewash.

Walls and wood trim should always be washed from the bottom up to avoid streaking. It's easier if you use a soft sponge than cloths, since sponges are more absorbent.

To make your painted walls easier to wash, try covering them with a thin coat of ordinary starch applied with a paint brush when they are clean or newly painted. When you next have to wash them, use clear water. The dirt and starch come off together, leaving the clean paint behind. Repeat the starch treatment after each washing. Your paint job will last longer if you do.

Floors

Varnished, shellacked, or lacquered floors should receive the same washing treatment as painted walls—mild soap and little water, on a small area at a time. The finish is preserved and they're easier to clean if you keep floors waxed. A thin coat of wax every 4 to 6 months does the trick. Traffic lanes and kitchen linoleum naturally need to be done oftener, once a month perhaps, and every two weeks where kitchen traffic is heaviest. Use self-polishing waxes on linoleum, cork, mastic tile or rubber floor coverings. Manufacturers of these floor coverings usually recommend such waxes as the solvents in other types of wax may damage them.

Tile and marble floors can be washed with soap and water and a fine scouring powder used where necessary. Water should be wiped up from tile at once so that it won't loosen the tiles. Cement may be flooded with clear water, or scrubbed with trisodium phosphate solution after you wet it with clear water.

China and Enamel Surfaces

Coarse abrasives should never be used on the smooth glazed finish of enamel or vitreous china. Soap and water are usually enough to keep them clean, but if you have to scour, a fine abrasive such a feldspar is best. Yellow stains on vitreous china plumbing fixtures, caused by iron in the water, can be removed with an acid like hydrochloric, used sparingly and thoroughly rinsed off at once. On non-acid resisting enamels use trisodium phosphate.

Wallpaper

Before you try to wash wallpaper, even if it was sold as washable, be sure to try the suds on a small inconspicuous spot. The degree of washability of papers, even the glossy kind, varies widely. When you've determined that the color won't run or the surface be ruined, wash them as you would a fine fabric surface. Thick suds applied with a soft sponge to a small spot at a time is the technique to use. Rub as lightly as possible and rinse with a sponge squeezed out in clear water. Use as little water as possible, as all paper is absorbent.

Putty-like wallpaper cleaners are safer than soap and water on most finishes. Or you can use art gum to remove light soil or finger marks, brushing before and after using it. Grease spots will sometimes come out if you use a paste made of Fuller's earth and cleaning fluid on them, allowing it to dry and then brushing off. There is always danger, however, of a streaked appearance resulting from attempts to clean wallpaper. So be careful.

Wood furniture

Treat varnished, shellacked, or lacquered wood furniture as you do floors. Wash with neutral soap suds and very little water, rinse and dry. Then wax or polish with furniture polish. Self polishing waxes, or liquid waxes are easy to apply to furniture and preserve the surface with less time and effort than other polishes. If you use furniture polish be sure to rub with a clean cloth after you have applied the polish. Furniture polish which contains oil will attract dirt if left on the surfaces. Many furniture polishes are mixtures of mineral oil and sulfated oil in water, mineral oil and citronella, or mineral oil and boiled linseed oil. They have a tendency to sweat, and should be rubbed off as thoroughly as possible. Such polishes will leave a dark permanent stain.

Kitchen Utensils

Soap and water are, of course, the first step towards cleanliness in kitchen utensils. If you want to prolong the life of your pots and pans, however, the treatment you should use to remove heavy grease, burnt foods or other stains depends on the material that the utensil is made from.

Stains on aluminum can be removed with a fine abrasive or steel wool. When scouring fails, boiling some strongly acid food like tomatoes or rhubarb, or even just vinegar and water will often do the trick.

Strongly alkaline soaps and cleansing powders shouldn't be used on aluminum, as they slowly eat it away by chemical action.

A mildly alkaline cleaning powder is all right to use on enamel ware, or a fine feldspar abrasive, but never a coarse abrasive. A weak solution of soda and water will often remove burnt-on foods that don't yield to milder treatment.

Burnt-on food on tinware should be attacked with care and a fine scouring powder. Too much scouring will rub away the thin coating of tin exposing the cast iron base to rust. For the same reason tinware should also be carefully dried after washing and you shouldn't attempt to remove stains and discoloration from it.

Cast iron can be scoured with steel wool to remove stubborn spots of food. An alkaline soap will remove heavy grease without damage. To avoid rust, cast iron pans should be thoroughly dried after washing, and if they are not to be used again soon, rubbed with mineral oil before storing. The oil should of course be washed off before you use them again.

Glass and earthenware can be scoured with a fine abrasive without damage, or washed in a strong alkaline soap to remove grease.

Zinc galvanized buckets, garbage pails, and the like will stand harsher treatment. A coarse abrasive can safely be used to remove stubborn stains.

Stoves

Clean the enamel covered parts of your gas or electric stove with soapy water and don't use abrasives on it. It won't be necessary anyway if you wipe the stove off after each meal and if food that boils over is wiped up immediately. Detachable parts should be removed and washed. Trisodium phosphate may help to remove the dirt.

When food is spilled on the heating element of an electric stove, it should be allowed to char and then brushed off.

Coal and wood ranges need to have the flues cleaned once a month so that heat will circulate satisfactorily. Grease should be wiped off the outside of the stove with soap and water. Then the stove should be rubbed with a cloth moistened with kerosene or light lubricating oil.

Kerosene and gasoline stoves need to have the wicks cleaned once a day, removing all the char. The fuel tank should be drained, the feed pipe cleaned with stiff wire, and the tank rinsed out with a little clean fuel once every three months.

Brass and Copper

Keeping brass and copper shining is no trick if you rub them with a hot solution of vinegar and salt, or lemon and salt, wash in hot soapy water, rinse with hot clear water and dry thoroughly. If you want a high polish, shine them with fine chalk powder, made into a paste with water.

Powdered chalk sells at the drug store under the name of whiting and is one of the safest scouring powders because it doesn't scratch. After polishing, wash, rinse, and dry brass or copper.

Aluminum

Aluminum used in decorative trays and bowls is another metal you can brighten with a mild acid, like vinegar. But instead of scouring powder, use very fine steel wool for polishing.

Pewter

Pewter should be scoured with whiting paste only, because it is such a soft metal that it scratches and dents easily. After rubbing with the paste, wash, rinse, and dry. Or a fine silver polish will keep it bright if it's used regularly.

Nickel, Stainless Steel, Nickel-Copper Alloy, Chromium

Nickel, stainless steels, nickel-copper alloy, and chromium need only soap and water to keep them shining. Abrasives shouldn't be used, except with nickel when it's absolutely necessary. Then use a very fine one. All these are thin platings; harsh abrasives will wear them off. Some metal polishes will damage chromium or discolor nickel-copper alloy so none should be used on them.

Silver

Silver requires more care than any other household metal because it tarnishes so quickly.

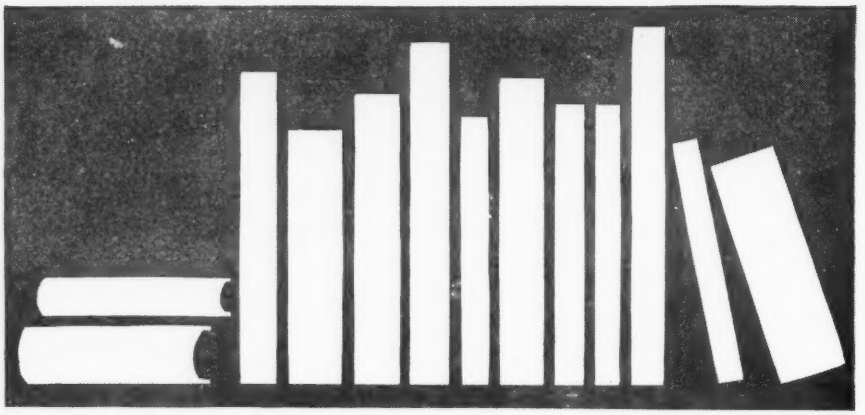
Electrolysis is the easiest and quickest way of cleaning it, but it doesn't give as bright a finish as rubbing with silver polish.

To clean silver by this method, simply fill an aluminum pan two-thirds full of water. Or use an enamel pan with a sheet of aluminum in the bottom, if you don't want to wear out your aluminum pans in these days of aluminum shortage. (That will happen because each time you clean the silver a little of the aluminum is dissolved.)

Then to each quart of water add a teaspoon of salt and a teaspoon of soda. When the water boils, put the silver in it so that each piece touches the aluminum bottom or the sheet, or touches another piece of silver that is in contact with the aluminum. In 1 or 2 minutes the tarnish will disappear and you can lift the clean silver out with tongs, wash in soap suds and dry. When you use this method don't leave the silver in the solution more than a few minutes, and don't use it for knives or other articles with hollow handles. The cement that fastens them may be dissolved or loosened so that the handles will come off.

Silver polishes, if you insist on doing your silver the hard way for the beautiful finish it gives, should contain only the finest abrasive, since silver scratches easily. Silver polishes on the market vary; quick-acting polishes usually contain coarser abrasives. It's as well to try out different polishes to see how much they scratch, then adopt one that seems to scratch the least.

Here's a recipe for a home-made silver polish. Mix one-fourth cup of soap jelly with one-fourth cup of fine whiting powder. Then add 1 teaspoon of household ammonia or 1 teaspoon of denatured alcohol. With all silver polishes the technique is; rub until the tarnish is gone, wash in hot soap suds, rinse in hot clear water and dry.



CONSUMERS' BOOKSHELF

EUROPEAN COOPERATIVES AND THE WAR. 1941, pp. 16. Reprinted from the Monthly Labor Review. Serial No. R. 1289. Address: U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, D. C. Free. Reports briefly on what has happened to the cooperative movement in Europe as a result of the antagonism of the totalitarian countries.

AN OUTLINE OF CERTAIN FACTORS INVOLVED IN THE STUDY OF THE INTERSTATE TRADE BARRIERS QUESTION, by Paul T. Truitt. 1941, pp. 9, mimeo. Address: Interdepartmental Committee on Interstate Trade Barriers, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C. Free. A study outline giving consideration to the nature and development of the trade barrier problem along with a suggested program for promoting remedial action.

A SUMMARIZED REPORT OF THE LEGAL SUBCOMMITTEE ON INTERSTATE TRADE BARRIERS. 1941, pp. 11. Address: Interdepartmental Committee on Interstate Trade Barriers, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C. Free. This report contains an analysis of existing Federal legislation to determine the extent to which it may be used, either directly to set aside, or indirectly to influence the modification of State laws and local ordinances which are barriers to interstate trade.

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20 QUESTIONS ON "ENRICHED" FLOUR AND BREAD. 1941, pp. 4. Address: Nutrition Division, Office of Coordinator of Health, Welfare, and Related Defense Activities, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C. Free. Government food experts give the answers to 20 commonly asked questions regarding "enriched" flour and bread.

RECOMMENDED DIETARY ALLOWANCES, prepared by the Committee on Food and Nutrition, National Research Council. 1941, pp. 5. Address: Nutrition Division, Office of Coordinator of Health, Welfare, and Related Defense Activities, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C. Free. A technical bulletin of interest to teachers and research workers. Contains a table of dietary allowances which represent the best available evidence on the amounts of the various nutritive essentials desirable in diets.

FUELS AND CARBURETION. U. S. War Department Technical Manual TM 10–550. 1940, pp. 80. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 15 cents. Although this is a technical publication it would be useful to any consumer desiring to obtain an understanding of automotive fuels and the operation of the automotive fuel system.

AUTOMOTIVE LUBRICATION. U. S. War Department Technical Manual TM 10–540. 1940, pp. 57. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 10 cents. Although prepared for War Department use, this publication would be of interest to any consumer wishing to understand automotive lubri-

cation. Considers theories of lubrication. sources, types and properties of lubricants; and the selection and use of lubricants.

ASPHALT-PREPARED ROLL ROOFINGS AND SHINGLES, by Hubert R. Snoke, National Bureau of Standards. Report BMS70. 1941, pp. 34. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 15 cents. Methods of manufacturing asphalt-prepared roofing are described. Factors which should be considered in purchasing, applying, and maintaining this type of roofing are discussed. Contains numerous diagrams illustrating methods of application.

CONSUMPTION TAXES. Law and Contemporary Problems, Vol. 8, No. 3, Summer 1941, pp. 654. Address: Law and Contemporary Problems, Duke University School of Law, Durham, North Carolina. $1.00. Discusses the history, functions, and administration of consumption taxes.

NATIONAL DEFENSE CONSUMER INFORMATION CENTERS. Bulletin No. 14. 1941, pp. 8, Mimeo. Address: Consumer Division, Office of Price Administration, Washington, D. C. Free. Considers the functions, location, program of activities, and administration of national defense consumer information centers.

A STUDY OF GRADE, QUALITY AND PRICE OF CANNED TOMATOES SOLD AT RETAIL IN INDIANA, by F. C. Gaylord and K. I. Fawcett. Bulletin 438. 1939, pp. 24. Addresss: Agricultural Experiment Station, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana. Free. Two thousand nine hundred and nine samples of tomatoes in No. 2 cans representing 399 different brands were purchased over a three-year period in 125 cities, towns, and villages in Indiana. The survey covers the following points: The quality of the tomatoes according to U. S. Government grades, price in relation to grade or quality, correctness of labels and grades, uniformity of tomatoes packed under the same label or brand, and comparison of quality of Indiana packed tomatoes with those of other origin.

GOVERNMENT IN HOUSING. You Make America Series, No. 2. 1940, pp. 23. Address: Department of Government Management, University of Denver, 2011 Glenarm Place, Denver, Colorado. 10 cents. Examines various activities of the Federal Government in the field of housing. Gives some of the pros and cons of Government housing using Denver as a specific example.

THE MEANING POSSIBILITIES AND LIMITATIONS OF COOPERATIVE MARKETING, by E. F. Dummeier. Popular Bulletin No. 154. 1938, pp. 24. Address: Agricultural Experiment Station, State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington. Free. Considers the functions and types of cooperative marketing. Evaluates some of the advantages and limitations of this type of marketing.

TELEVISING CONSUMER FACTS

Concluded from page 11

can't be shipped in interstate commerce marked as fresh eggs, however.

Butter that's sold with a certificate of quality from the Agricultural Marketing Service may be either U. S. 93 score or U. S. 92 score. The quality certificates are not issued for the lower grades of butter.

A-B-C Grades are now appearing on the labels of more and more canned foods. Standards have been worked out by the AMS for 39 fruits and vegetables. Several national chains and many independently owned and operated food stores now sell them. Consumer owned and operated groceries also offer them to their patrons.

On canned goods Grade A means the finest quality fruit or vegetable, carefully selected as to size, color, degree of maturity, and freedom from blemishes. Grade B consists of excellent quality products, not quite so well selected as to color, size and maturity as Grade A. Grade C designates good quality products which aren't so uniform in color, size and maturity as Grade B. They may be nutritionally just as health-giving as the better grades.

Canners may grade their own products, or they may submit samples to the AMS for grading.

"U. S. Grade A-B-or-C" on labels of canned goods goes a step farther. It guarantees that the product was packed under continuous 24-hour inspection of officials of the AMS. The certified grades carry assurance of the wholesomeness of the food and of sanitary conditions under which it was prepared in addition to its quality.

Certified grades are an innovation confined to the products of only a few canning plants so far. Continuous inspection is being carried on in 24 plants this year by officials of the AMS. You can buy these U. S. graded canned foods in some stores in most sections of the country.

Grades for fresh vegetables and fruits have less value for consumers, though most wholesale transactions are carried out on the basis of grades. The reason lies in the fact that quality in fresh vegetables changes rapidly. A vegetable that was Grade A when shipped to market may not reach the retail counter in that condition or remain so throughout the day.

For some less perishable products, like potatoes, apples, citrus fruits, and onions, experts at the AMS are trying to establish ways to make grades more adaptable to consumer use.

Consumers can also buy milled and brown rice and, in some sections of the country, honey marked with a U. S. grade.

Buyers who want further details about the meaning of Government grades for foods can write the Agricultural Marketing Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C., for the free booklets, "The Consumer and the Standardization of Farm Products," and "The A B C of Canned Fruit and Vegetable Labeling."

OUR THANKS for photographs go to: cover, Bureau of Animal Industry; p. 3, Farm Security Administration; p. 5, top, FSA, Extension Service; lower, FSA; pp. 7 and 8, FSA; p. 11, Agricultural Marketing Service; back cover, top to bottom, FSA, FSA, AMS, CONSUMER'S GUIDE.

CONSUMERS' GUIDE

NOVEMBER 15, 1941 .:. VOLUME VIII, NUMBER 2

A publication of the Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. Issued monthly from June through September; semimonthly from October through May. Prepared by Consumers' Service Section, Consumers' Counsel Division.

Consumers' Counsel. Donald E. Montgomery; Consumers' Service Section, Chief, Mary Taylor; Editorial Assistant, Anne Carter; Contributing Writers: Lewis Carliner, Mary Stephenson, Jane Whitbread; Photographic and Art Work, Theodor Jung.

CONSUMERS' GUIDE is printed with the approval of the Bureau of the Budget as required by Rule 42 of the Joint Committee on Printing. Official free distribution, 150,000 copies per issue. Additional copies may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 5 cents a copy, or by subscription, 50 cents a year, domestic; 80 cents a year, foreign. Postage stamps will not be accepted in payment.

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